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Vol. XII, No. 22

MONDAY, APRIL 7, 1919

WHOLE No. 336

A Partial List of the 510 Schools That Use Graphic Latin

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Ceaderville College, Ceaderville, O. Centenary College, Shreveport, La. Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.

College of the Incarnate Word, San Antonio, Texas

College of St. Elizabeth, Convent, N. J. Columbian College, Westminster, B. C., Can Connecticut College, New London, Conn. Country Day School, Newton, Mass.

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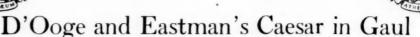
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VOL. XII

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ENGLISH LITERATURE AND THE LATIN CLASSICS

The Relations of Latin and English as Living Languages in England During the Age of Milton. University of Virginia Dissertation. By Weldon T. Myers. Dayton, Virginia: Ruebush-Elkins Co. (1913). Pp. 166.

Horace in the English Literature of the Eighteenth Century. By Caroline Goad. Yale University Press (1918). Pp. vi+634. Yale University Dissertation=Yale Studies in English, LVIII. \$3.00.

In recent years the students of English literature have been devoting attention, in gratifying measure, to the indebtedness of English literature, in prose and poetry both, to the literature of ancient Rome. Some of the fruits of these investigations will be considered in this paper.

In 1913, Mr. Weldon T. Myers, now Professor of English Literature in the University of Virginia, published privately the dissertation described above. The work falls into the following parts: Introduction (pages 7-12); Section I: Latin in the Schools and Universities (13-52); Section II: Latin as an International Language (53-104); Section III: Latin as a Substitute for English (105-161); Conclusion: Summary (162-164); Bibliography (165-166). Within Section I the Chapters are entitled, Latin in the Schools (13-25), Latin in the University Curricula and University Administration (26-39), Extra-curriculum Uses of Latin (40-52). In Section II there are three Chapters: Latin in Official Correspondence (53-64), Latin in Private Correspondence (65-70), Publications in Latin (71-104). The four chapters in Section III deal with Epistolary Latin (105-116), Latin Prose (117-122), Latin Poetry (123-139), Diffusion of Latin (140-161).

In these chapters there is an immense amount of material of interest and value to the student of Latin. It is manifestly impossible to do justice, in a brief space, to a book whose contents are so varied. It is possible only to indicate clearly what the author undertook to do, by summing up various chapters, and finally, by printing a few citations which will give in brief the author's conclusions.

The author sets forth the scope and purpose of his work as follows (10):

Latin, then, as a living and literary tongue alongside of English during the supreme classical age of Milton is the subject of this treatise. An effort has been made to comprehend all the active uses of the older language

in written and spoken discourse, in prose and verse, in England, and by Englishmen; to present all the activities wherein Latin stood aloof from and independent of English, and all wherein the two tongues came into mutual contact as rivals, as co-workers, or as subordinate the one to the other.

In presenting the Latinity of the whole period, the example of Milton as a user of Latin has been called to witness wherever a record or evidence of such use appears. A thorough investigation of his life and literary work has been made for this purpose and his name finds a place in nearly all the divisions of Latin writing in his time. He has helped to illuminate the whole work, and his classical character has been itself illustrated in the light of that humanistic age.

Chapters I and II of Section I make clear the overwhelming predominance of Latin in Schools and Universities. Most of the instruction was intended to give the pupils a mastery of Latin, to be shown by ability to speak and write Latin. Latin mottoes adorned the walls of Schools; the use of Latin was even prescribed for extra-class-room activities. At Eton and Westminster the mother tongue was "disgraced and banished", and Latin held "imperial sway" (19). At the Universities candidates for degrees must defend 'theses' in Latin; such defences formed parts of the "Entertainment" on Commencement Days and at other important public functions of the Universities; public lectures were delivered in Latin: text-books were chiefly in Latin. The statutes governing the Universities were in Latin. Especially interesting are these statements (38-39, 40):

The Latin language constituted the web and woof of serious academic discourse. Even the minor and incidental affairs, in which full liberty was granted for the vernacular, were inclined to seek expression in the favored language of learning.

Latin shared with English the responsibility and honors of the stage in University performances. In the sixteenth century the older language had most of the burden.

On pages 40–42 some account is given of various original Latin comedies of this time: Ignoramus, Fraus Honesta, Senile Odium, Roxana, Naufragium Ioculare, Bellum Grammaticale sive Nominum Verborumque Discordia Civilis.

In the seventeenth century Latin was used chiefly in academic poetry—verses written to celebrate notable public events (43). In illustration of this statement Mr. Myers considers the achievements in this field of the University of Cambridge (44-49). In correspondence between the English court and foreign courts Latin alone was employed (53-64). In correspondence and conversation with foreigners men in

private life used Latin (65-70). A very interesting chapter is that on Latin Publications (71-104).

In the chapter on Latin Prose (117-122), Dr. Myers maintains that authors chose Latin as their medium not merely because they were seeking a wider audience, i.e. wished their publications to make appeal beyond the limits of England, but because they regarded Latin as much the superior language.

Even the most zealous defenders of English did not go so far as to contend for its equality with Latin or the other languages which had been tested by the ages (119-120).

In Milton's time there was no acknowledged standard of English prose. This came later, after the Restoration and during the eighteenth century, when the genius of the language was allowed to assert and develop itself. But before the Restoration its syntax was not fixed, its sentence-structure lacked power and effectiveness, its vocabulary lacked wealth and refinement. However much the great prose writers contemporary with Milton were misguided in the worship of the classics, they certainly believed and felt their native prose to be still an inadequate and imperfect instrument, not yet far removed from vulgarity and How were these writers and scholars barbarism. to give full and satisfactory expression to their thoughts? Was there no means at hand for worthy literary utterance? They answered the question by their actions. They could either use Latin, the language whose capacity and power no man ever questioned, or they could take up the ill-formed English, and mould it into Latinized forms: make its syntax, sentence-structure, its roll and volume, and in some measure its vocabulary like the long approved and honored Latin. Hence we have the prose of Milton, often impossible to parse, often scarcely intelligible likewise the prose of Thomas Hooker, Jeremy Taylor, Thomas Browne, and Lord Clarendon. If these men believed English the equal of Latin in controversy, philosophy, history, and all other serious utterance, why did they commit the absurdity of straining after the style of Cicero, and distorting their native tongue out of its approved adequacy and perfection into the monstrosities of an alien idiom? It was a sincere effort, no doubt, "to adorn the native tongue", as Milton confessed; to make English what Latin had been of old, by adopting the supreme merits of the ancient The mistake was in not recognizing the different genius and character of the two languages, and in not fostering, surely and steadily, the native, in-herent qualities of homely English. This mistake was committed by scholars not only in prose but also in attempting to stretch English verse to the measure of classical forms (120-121):

Another very interesting chapter is the one entitled Diffusion of Latin (140–161). This deals with the use of Latin in (1) Literary Titles (142–145: even when a book was written in English, it often bore a Latin title); (2) Phrases and Forms (e.g. in dates: 145–147); (3) Dedications (147–149); (4) Epitaphs (149–153); (5) Mottoes (153–154); (6) Quotations (154–161).

Of Professor Myers's conclusions something must now be said. On pages 162-163 he writes:

Latin, in a literal sense, was a living and potent language. In the amount of attention and training directly received, it enjoyed advantages infinitely superior to those of the humble vernacular. In almost

every department of human activity, it shared with English the burden of communication, and in a few special services it alone was acknowledged to be worthy of employment. Its superior virtue as an instrument of expression attracted the genius of the greatest thinkers and philosophers; and even those who stuck to their native English adopted portions of the Latin idiom and vocabulary to reinforce and dignify a weak, unhonored tongue. Apart from inherent worth, the ancient language held the exceeding great advantage of a wider, more intellectual, and more honorable audience. Its eternal vitality was supposed to impart life and power to every thing it touched.

On page 164 he says:

The door to English literature and history of the seventeenth century is open wide to those who are at ease in the presence of Latin. Many writings and events of the time may doubtless be understood and enjoyed by readers ignorant of the classics, but to them the heart and spirit of the period as a whole will hardly be revealed. Poetry, philosophy, history, biography, controversy, sermons, correspondence, even conversation,—all have come down to us from the age of Milton either written in or so touched with Latin that one is compelled to enter seventeenth century England by way of Rome as Rome must be entered by way of Athens.

Professor Myers believes strongly that English prose suffered grievously in the age of Milton because it was so completely dominated by Latin prose. Under the influence of Latin prose (163)

the best writers of the time. . . wrote strange and monstrous English sentences, being as proud to transplant the Latin period in England as Horace was to bring the Greek metres into Rome. All the efforts of Milton's admirers have failed and will forever fail to make his prose permanently attractive to readers who love the simplicity and straightforwardness of genuine, idiomatic English. . . .

Latin, by its engrossing claims, must bear also the accusation of having debarred the minds of Englishmen from many other worthy pursuits. Investigation in scientific fields was shorn of its best energy by the exactions of a language which boasted to be itself the most deserving object of attention, and which at the very least demanded to be the voice of all science and philosophy. Inquiry into matters of religion, or politics, or mathematics, or natural philosophy always ran the risk of being checked or utterly defeated by the interposition of linguistic controversy.

Miss Goad's book falls into the following parts: Introduction, The Place of Horace in the Eighteenth Century (1–16); Horace as Used by Some of the Great Writers of the Eighteenth Century (19–289); Appendix. References to Horace in the Works of those Writers of the Eighteenth Century already Considered (293–620); Index (621–634).

Horace's place in the English literature of the eighteenth century Miss Goad indicates as follows (3):

The translation of the Odes, Satires, and Epistles has been a never-failing allurement to the poets of every age of English literature. And every theory of translation has been exemplified in some English rendering of Horace.

It remained for the least imaginative and most critical period in English literature, the first half of the eighteenth century, to give full appreciation to Horace. His rules for poetry, known directly from his writings and transmitted through such French authors as Boileau, were accepted, even more widely than the laws of Aristotle, as the standard of critical judgment. Addison and Steele by their choice of mottos for their periodicals, Prior by his adoption of a type of lyric that has since his time been designated as Horatian, and Pope with his imposing series of *Imilations*, gave such an impulse to the already wide-spread interest that it was carried on through the whole of the century.

The innumerable critical pamphlets of the day "are saturated with classical allusion, especially Horatian" (3). "The influence of Horace is apt to be subtle and indefinite" (5), in part because

brilliant apophthegms, rather than of sustained arguments. Even in his Odes, which, by their brevity, make for concentrated unity of subject, striking phrases and sayings may be culled at random, and in great number. It is such maxims that strike the attention, and remain in the memory of Horace's admirers; no sustained work of theirs is directed and influenced by an underlying philosophy of his; a consistent philosophy would be difficult to find in Horace.

Hence, striking lines rather than whole poems form the bulk of the quotations from Horace (7). Seldom is a quotation from another classic author attributed to him (7): men knew Horace (9). He was more quoted than any other classical author (7). The Satires and Epistles were quoted more than the Odes; when the Odes were used, the parts that had some utilitarian value were as a rule employed, rather than the parts showing "the beauties in which they are so abundantly rich" (8).

Horace may be said to pervade the literature of the eighteenth century in three ways: as a teacher of political and social morality; as a master of the art of poetry; and as a sort of elegantiae arbiter.

These points are then considered in order (8-11). The Ars Poetica was, throughout this century, the most frequently quoted literary authority (10); next in frequency of quotation were Epp. 2.1, 2.2, Serm. 1.4, 1.

The following paragraph is interesting (13):

The use made of Horace by the four great novelists, Richardson, Sterne, Smollett, and Fielding, is striking in its diversity. Richardson's allusions are at second hand; Sterne uses him with other classical authors, but is only casually interested in him as a literary critic; Smollett is fond of him, and likes to quote him, but Horace's gentle raillery seldom softens his own bitter invective; Fielding, in his friendly criticism and tolerance of human frailties, is a true Horatian.

Worth quoting too is this (15):

But the most truly Horatian writer of the eighteenth century, and, indeed, in English literature, is unquestionably Addison. And he is so by inspiration rather than by deliberate following of any one characteristic of Horace's writings that appealed peculiarly to his own genius. Prior has caught and made to live again the spirit of Horace's light odes. Pope recognized his master-workmanship, and, following him, polished and refined his poetry until it became the standard of correctness for the English couplet. Steele and Fielding

adopted from Horace the kindly, bantering tone that Pope has described in his Essay on Criticism:

Horace still charms with graceful negligence, And without method talks us into sense; Will, like a friend, familiarly convey The truest notions in the easiest way.

It is Addison only who re-embodies the complete genius of Horace. He is Horatian in his writings and in his character, as we know it through the testimony of his contemporaries. His is the same quiet irony; his the mood, now grave, now gay, alternating in his essays, that is ever changing in Horace's odes.

The writers considered in the second division of the book are Nicholas Rowe (19–25); Joseph Addison (26–65); Richard Steele (66–89); Matthew Prior (90–116); John Gay (117–127); Alexander Pope (128–170); Jonathan Swift (171–190); Henry Fielding (191–212); Richardson, Sterne, and Smollett (213–232); Samuel Johnson (233–270); The Letter-Writers: Lord Chesterfield and Horace Walpole (271–292).

In this part of her work Miss Goad discusses the attitude of each writer to Horace, and in general the uses to which he put his quotations from Horace. The value of each author's translations and adaptations of Horace is considered in detail; the extent to which, in his different classes of writings, he uses Horace is indicated. It may be noted, also, that Miss Goad has much to say of the extent to which each author she considers uses other Latin writers, especially Vergil and Ovid, and of the author's knowledge of Greek writers also and use of their writings. In the Appendix, Miss Goad aims to give a complete list of the passages in which each author shows use of Horace in any way. In Section C, Quotations of, or Reference to Lines of Horace, and in Section E, Direct Mention of Horace, she quotes in extenso the English passage involved, much more extensively, it may be noted, than Ribbeck quotes in the Testimonia of his editions of the Comicorum Romanorum Fragmenta and the Tragicorum Romanorum Fragmenta, or Vahlen in his edition of the fragments of Ennius. In the Appendix she lists each author's A. Translations of Horace; B. Mottos from Horace; C. Quotations of, or Reference to Lines of Horace; D. Implicit Allusion to Horace; E. Direct Mention of Horace.

Manifestly, Miss Goad's book is a veritable mine, not only to lovers of Horace, but to students of Latin literature in general. By reason of its very voluminousness it does not lend itself easily to analysis; yet some idea of the conclusions reached by Miss Goad has been conveyed by the quotations given above from her Introduction.

In the Index, the Odes, Epodes, etc., of which Miss Goad has found translations, quotations, imitations, adaptations, or to which she sees allusions, direct or indirect, are listed in order, with reference to the pages of her book in which the matter is discussed. Few indeed are the pieces of Horace that find no place in this Index.

(To be continued)

LATIN ADJECTIVAL CLAUSES WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE

The contentions of the present paper are as follows:

(1) The adjectival clause, introduced by a relative pronoun, in Latin or elsewhere, never expresses an adverbial relation as result, cause, opposition, condition, purpose, though such relations may be implied, just as they may be when an adjective, a participle, or an appositive is used.

(2) The subjunctive in adjectival clauses never loses its subjunctive meaning.

(3) No theory of the subjunctive adjectival clause based on its power to express a consecutive relation or on the loss by the mode of its modal meaning is tenable.

(4) Neither the so-called relative clause of purpose nor any other relative clause (clauses virtually independent excepted) has a subjunctive with volitive or optative meaning.

(5) Aside from a few cases in which the 'would'-'should' meaning appears, the subjunctive in adjectival clauses in Latin has the meaning of external determination. Concerning this meaning the following brief explanation is offered.

In English we may say, 'I am to go', 'he is to go', 'you are to go'. By means of these periphrastic forms we indicate that an act is bound to take place. In contrast to the act or the situation willed or wished, the act or the situation contemplated as bound to take place, or bound to be, is seen to be conditioned or determined by some law external to the speaker at the time of speaking. I therefore propose the name External Determination² for this modal meaning. It is the meaning which I have claimed for the non-will subjunctive (accompanied by av or we) in independent sentences in Homeric Greek and for a large number of the non-wish optatives. I see the same meaning in a large number of subjunctives in Latin independent declarative sentences and especially in the second person indefinite subjunctive in statements of a general truth. It is the meaning of the subjunctive in the great mass of subjunctive questions (excluding only those with a 'would'-'should' meaning). Quid faciam is simply, 'What am I to do?'.

In the expression of this modal meaning, as indeed in the expression of any modal meaning, the temporal meaning actually expressed is that of the modal idea and not that of the verb itself. The tense meaning of 'I can go' is the time of 'can'. Just so in 'I am to go'

the tense meaning is the time of 'am'. The time of 'go' in both cases is not expressed: it is indefinite except that from the nature of the case it can not be before the time of the modal auxiliary.

We may begin with Horace, Carm, 1.32-1-4:

Poscimur. Siquid vacui sub umbra lusimus tecum, quod et hunc in annum vivat et plures, age dic Latinum, barbite, carmen.

The use of hunc in annum et plures, 'this year and for many years to come', makes it clear that the act of living contemplated is not confined to present time. Horace might have used the future indicative. That he did not is a clear indication that he had in mind something more than could be expressed by vivet; and the thought which he would naturally have in mind and wish to express is that which we might express by 'which is to live', 'is fated to live', 'is destined to live', 'is bound to live'. Now, in any expression of external determination such as 'This is bound to live', there is necessarily an implication of some factor because of which the act is bound to take place. In the case of a relative clause that determining factor will be the character of the antecedent or some circumstance closely connected with the antecedent. Here Horace is evidently conscious of the character of his poetry as a factor because of which it is bound to live. But this is not to say that the relative clause expresses result, a consecutive relation. The antecedent clause does not assert the existence of a situation or the taking place of an action of which the action of the subordinate clause is shown to be a result.

In the example discussed, futurity is not expressed by the form of the verb; it is implied by the context. In the great mass of the so-called descriptive clauses of fact there is no such implication. The following example therefore is typical of such clauses: Stich. 259 Au, nullan tibi linguast? #Quae quidem dicat 'dabo', 'I have no tongue which (because of its character) is bound to be saying, I'll give'. A translation with the indicative is possible and in fact idiomatically necessary; but that means simply that English idiom in using the indicative fails to express that which the Latin idiom does express.

I propose the explanation indicated for the subjunctive found in the several types of adjectival clauses.

Adjectival clauses in Latin or elsewhere fall into two classes. If the antecedent is undetermined, the clause is restrictive in that it restricts the application of the undetermined antecedent. If the antecedent is selfdetermined, the clause is explicative.

Again, an adjectival clause, like any other adjectival element in a sentence, may be (1) predicative, i.e. may express the predicate of the sentence as a whole, or (2) may be attributive, i.e. logically as well as grammatically the subordinate clause.

It will be seen that all discussion of the literature of this subject is omitted from this paper. If the meaning of 'external determination' is established as one of the meanings of the Latin subjunctive and if the assigning of that meaning to the subjunctive in adjectival clauses is seen to be a sufficient explanation of their presence, all other explanations fall to the ground. The present paper is one of a series designed to establish the fact that the Latin subjunctive possessed the meaning of external determination. Two other papers in the series have been published, one, Determined Puturity in Greek, in The Classical Weekely 10. 178-181, 185-188, the other, The Determined Futurity Subjunctive in Latin, The Classical Weekely 11.161-164, 169-172.

The term 'determined futurity', which I used in the two papers referred to in Note 1, I now, for reasons that will be apparent, abandon in favor of the term 'external determination'.

abandon in favor of the term 'external determination'

^{*}On the use of the terms 'definite' and 'indefinite' compare now Sonnenschein, The Classical Review 32.68-69.

A. Restrictive Clauses.

1. The relative clause is logically the principal clause and expresses the predicate of the sentence as a whole. The verb of the antecedent clause is either a mere expression of existence (est) or little more than this (est mihi, habeo, nanciscor, video, etc.).

In sentences of the nihil est quod type, Latin used only the subjunctive in the relative clause. It is theoretically possible that the language should have made use of the indicative; but with a negative antecedent the character of the antecedent is so clearly left as a determining factor that the subjunctive with the meaning 'is bound to' is certainly a more logical mode of expression. The last example quoted serves here. In the interrogative sentence with an implied negative a transformation of the complex sentence into a simple one with the subjunctive is possible. Quis homost qui dicat? is a rhetorical variant of Quis dicat?

In sentences of the est qui type either the indicative or the subjunctive might be used. Compare Horace, Carm. 1.1.3 Sunt quos curriculo pulverem Olympicum collegisse iuvat; Cicero, Tusc. 1.18 Sunt qui nu'llum censeant fieri discessum. The supposition that there is no difference in modal meaning between the two modes is a priori improbable and is unnecessary. When Cicero says Sunt qui censeant, it is perfectly possible and, indeed, from my point of view, certain, that he has in mind the act as bound to happen rather than as happening. He therefore says, 'There are those who are bound to hold the opinion'.

There is no more difficulty with sentences of the multi, pauci, quidam, nonnulli, unus duo, etc., sunt qui types. When the subjunctive is used, as in the following example, the act or the situation is thought of as one bound to be: Caesar, B.G. 1.6.1 Erant omnino itinera duo, quibus itineribus domo exire possent.

When the element of character existing as a determining factor is stated explicitly, as in sentences with tantus or tam, the subjunctive of external determination is inevitable. Cicero, Verr. 3.60, might have said, using an ut-clause of result, 'There are no losses so great that brave men do not think they ought to be endured'. He did say, using an adjectival clause, 'There are no so-great losses which brave men are bound not to think ought to be endured': Damna nulla tanta sunt, quae non viri fortes ferenda arbitrentur.

In sentences of the *tu* is es qui type in effect the relative clause predicates something of a particular person or thing; but formally the particular person or thing is identified with the undetermined antecedent of the relative, and there is no essential difference between sentences of this type and those already discussed.

Cicero, Ad Fam. 5.12.6, writes Neque enim tu is es qui quid sis nescias, 'You are not the one who is bound not to know'. With a positive antecedent clause either indicative or subjunctive might be used, but with a difference in modal meaning. Compare also Livy 9.3.12 Ista quidem sententia, inquit, ea est, quae neque amicos

parat nec inimicos tollit. . . . Ea est Romana gens quae victa quiescere nesciat.

2. The restrictive adjectival clause is logically as well as grammatically dependent, that is, it plays the part of an attributive adjective.

In a sentence of the *nihil est molestum*, *quod* type the real antecedent is an 'any'. But 'any' is an assumptive pronoun and the statement made by the relative clause is necessarily an assumption. That this has no effect on the choice of the mode is shown by the fact that either indicative or subjunctive may be used. Compare Cicero, Lael. 65 Nihil est enim stabile, quod infidum est; Cicero, C. M. 47 Nihil autem est molestum quod non desideres. Here as elsewhere difference in mode means a difference in modal meaning. Cicero in the last example means to say, 'Nothing is a source of annoyance, the need of which you are bound not to be feeling'.

A relative clause with an antecedent meaning 'all' is restrictive quantitatively; and in thus restricting the antecedent the relative clause restricts the generality of the statement of the antecedent clause. In Latin such restrictive or limiting clauses may have either the indicative or the subjunctive: Plautus, Cas. 174 Ita solent omnes, quae sunt male nuptae; Cicero, Verr. 2.83 Omnia domo eius abstulit, quae paulo magis animum cuiuspiam aut oculos possent commovere; Cicero, Tusc. 5.55 At Cinna. . . praecidi caput iussit. . . M. Antoni, omnium eloquentissimi, quos ego audierim. The modal meaning in the two subjunctive examples is the same, that of external determination; but in the last example the determining factor because of which the act was bound to take place consists of the circumstances attending the antecedent, not the character of the antecedent. Sentences with eorum and a superlative do not differ essentially from the example last quoted, since an 'all' is implied. The same quantitative restriction is to be seen in examples in which the relative is modified by a partitive genitive eius: Lex Agr. (Bruns, Fontes, 75) Ager publicus. . . quod eius extra urbem Romanam

Here too belong the restrictive clauses of the quod sciam type: Cicero, Ad Att. 16.2.4 Sed non venerat, quod sciam. In this case the quod has for its antecedent the thought stated in the antecedent clause, just as in English, 'He didn't do this that I know of'. But the subjunctive is one of external determination with the attendant circumstances as determining factor. The thought of Cicero's sentence might be expressed analytically as follows, 'He had not come, that part of the statement is true that I (under the circumstances governing my knowing) am bound to know about'

Sentences belonging to this class may have as antecedent of the relative an undetermined pronoun, usually is, or an undetermined noun, or the pronoun used adjectively with the noun.

The adjectival clause may be used just as an adjective

may be used to identify the person or the thing as a particular individual. Since an individual is known and identified by that which he has done, is doing, or is, the indicative is practically inevitable in such clauses: Cicero, Ca[†] 1.10 Exclusi eos, quos tu ad me salutatum miseras.

The statement of the antecedent clause may be one of a general truth, as in 'He who is good is happy'. In such a case the relative clause furnishes the mark of identification of a class and has the indicative for the same reason that the clause identifying an individual has that mode. Compare Cicero, Pomp. 38 Neque enim potest exercitum is continere imperator, qui se ipse non continet. But to say that a clause is used to identify is not to say that it ceases to be descriptive.

If the statement is particular and the clause is not used to identify, the adjectival clause in sentences of this is qui type may have and commonly does have the subjunctive. The indicative also may be used: Tacitus, Hist. 1.16 Sed imperaturus es hominibus, qui nec totam servitutem pati possunt, nec totam libertatem; Cicero, Phil. 5.44 Eam complexus est causam, quae esset senatui. . . gratissima, 'He embraced that cause which (from its nature) was bound to be most in favor with the Senate'. If in such sentences in early Latin the indicative construction was the more common one, that simply proves that writers of that period, under circumstances permitting either expression, preferred to say 'who does' rather than 'who is bound to do'.

B. Explicative Clauses.

The antecedent is self-determined.

Of necessity explicative clauses, unless indeed they are parenthetical, must express a thought having some relation to the act or the situation of the antecedent clause. In explicating an antecedent the clause by implication explicates the statement made concerning that antecedent. In Latin either the indicative or the subjunctive may be used. The relation may be causal as in the first two of the following examples from Plautus; it may be adversative as in the last two: Rud. 994 Ego qui sum piscator scio; Mil. 370 Ego stulta et mora multum quae cum hoc insano fabuler. . . ; Rud. 1291 Istic scelestus liber est: ego qui in mari prehendi rete atque excepi vidulum, ei dari negatis quicquam; Poen. 233 Miror equidem, soror, te istaec sic fabulari, quae tam callida et docta sis et faceta. The difference in meaning between clauses with the indicative and those with the subjunctive is purely a modal one. In Mil. 370 Plautus says 'I am a fool who am bound to be talking with this crazy fellow'.

Some special phases of the subjunctive adjectival clauses must now be noted.

In an expression of external determination it sometimes happens, as I have elsewhere shown, that the act or the situation contemplated is under the control of some agent. In such a case, 'you are to' implies, 'you are to choose to' (in accordance with considerations of ethics or logic), 'you ought'. For example, 'Children are always to obey their parents'. The following will serve as an example from Latin (the negative shows that the subjunctive is not volitive): Publilius Syrus 126 De inimico non loquaris male sed cogites. This implication may occur in adjectival clauses, as possibly in the following example: Plautus, Capt. 741 Post mortem in morte nil est quod metuam mali.

Common are examples in which *quod* is an accusative of specification: Plautus, Rud. 516 Bonam est quod habeas gratiam merito mihi, 'There is reason why you are (to choose) to be grateful'.

In an expression of external determination there may be an implication of effort and therefore of capacity ('can') or of opportunity ('may') on the part of some agent; 'he is to find' implies 'he is to succeed in his search', 'he can find'. So commonly in Latin in the case of the second person indefinites, videas, scias, nescias, reperias. This implication may occur in adjectival clauses when the situation suggested by the antecedent clause is such as to give or to fail to give an opportunity for the action of the relative clause: Plautus, Aul. 238 At nil est dotis quod dem, 'There is nothing in the way of dower which I am to (can, may) give'.

There is in such sentences also an implication of availability or suitability of the antecedent of the relative,—'which is available or suitable for giving'. This idea may be stated explicitly in the antecedent clause by the use of dignus, indignus, idoneus: Terence, And. 230 Nec satis digna quoi committas primo partu mulierem, 'She is not a fit'ing one to whom you are to entrust. . .'

All these implications may be present when the antecedent clause expresses the idea of obtaining or giving possession of-the possession in any case making available the thing or the person indicated by the antecedent and at the same time furnishing the opportunity to the agent: Plautus, Trin. 339 De mendico male meretur qui ei dat quod edit aut bibat. And further, when the action of the verb of the antecedent clause makes the person or the thing indicated by the antecedent available for some action indicated in the relative clause, it will usually be the case that the act of the relative clause is seen to be the motive of the antecedent clause. This is true when the person or the thing is made available in ways other than by being given, as in the so-called relative clauses of purpose in general: Caesar, B. G. 2. 17 Exploratores mittit qui locum idoneum castris deligant, 'He sends scouts who are to select. . .', 'scouts adapted for selecting'. The time of the act of the relative clause is necessarily future, since it can not be performed until the act of the antecedent clause is completed. A present indicative, therefore, is impossible. A future indicative might serve in Latin, as it did in Attic Greek; a subjunctive of external determination does serve, as it did in

Homeric Greek. If a distinctive name is thought necessary, the clause should be called the clause of availability; and this, if for no other reason than to avoid confusion with the true clause of purpose (adverbial) with which the adjectival clause has nothing in common.

Finally, there are a few adjectival clauses in Latin, other than 'purpose' clauses, which have been thought by some to contain a volitive subjunctive. An example is Horace, Epp. 1.15.18 Ad mare cum veni, generosum et lene requiro, quod curas abigat. But it is altogether unnecessary to suppose that the clause in this sentence is in any way different from the adjectival clauses which we have seen elsewhere with the subjunctive of external determination. Horace wants a wine which (because of its quality) is bound to drive dull care away. Indeed, a wine simply willed to drive away care would not necessarily be satisfactory.

THE WILLIAM WARREN SCHOOL. Stanford, California. FRANK H. FOWLER.

THE CLASSICAL CLUB OF PHILADELPHIA

The 143rd meeting of The Classical Club of Philadelphia was held on Friday, March 7, with twenty-seven members present. The paper of the evening was read by Dr. Richard M. Gummere, on Seneca—a Roman Progressive.

Dr. Gummere gave a most interesting estimate of Seneca, the man, the philosopher, and the writer. He showed, by numerous quotations, the opinions held of Seneca by his contemporaries, and his influence on thought and literature down to modern times. His conclusion was that Seneca was the first Latin essayist, and that his literary and philosophic influence was greater throughout succeeding centuries than is generally supposed.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Dr. Richard M. Gummere, Head Master of the William Penn Charter School; Vice-President, Mr. George L. Plitt, of the West Philadelphia High School; Secretary-Treasurer, Dr. B. W. Mitchell, Central High School, Philadelphia.

B. W. MITCHELL, Secretary.

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF PITTSBURGH AND VICINITY

It has been the fixed policy of the President, Miss Florence K. Root, Dean of the Pennsylvania College for Women, assisted by an active Executive Committee, to cooperate with other educational bodies in bringing before the members of the local Association from time to time men of prominence in other and related fields, who have delivered able messages of cheer and inspiration. As a result, the meetings this year have been among the best-attended and most successful in the history of the Association, covering a period of twelve years.

The Association has an active membership of sixtyseven teachers. The programs this year have been of unusual interest. The round-table conferences dealing with practical school-room problems, conducted by able teachers, have met a long-felt want and have proved particularly helpful to less experienced teachers in suburban Schools. The first meeting of the year was held in conjunction with the Education Association of Western Pennsylvania, and was addressed by Dr. E. B. Bryan, President of Colgate College, and by Dr. Wm. J. Holland, Director of the Carnegie Institute, Pittsburgh. The round-table conference on this occasion was planned to secure suggestions for future meetings, and was led by Mr. J. B. Hench, Principal of the University School, as follows: I Class-room Problems-have you any?; II Extra-class-room Activities-Lectures, Plays, etc.; III Inspiration and Where to get it.

The second meeting was featured by an able discussion on How to Acquire a Vocabulary, led by Miss Mary L. Breene, of the Peabody High School. Professor H. W. Gilmer, of the University of Pittsburgh, followed with a paper, A Pressing Problem and a Proposed Solution, in which he outlined an eclectic course in Latin for College students who have had only two years of preparation. Miss A. Alta Fretts, of the Monongahela High School, closed the program with a paper entitled Some Proofs of the Value of a Latin Vocabulary in English Word-Derivation.

The third meeting was addressed by Judge John D. Shafer, of the Court of Common Pleas, Pittsburgh, and by Dr. John C. Acheson, President of the Pennsylvania College for Women. A luncheon was followed by three four-minute speeches on the Classics, scintillating with wit and inspiration, delivered by Miss Wilma F. Schmitz, of the South Hills High School, Professor Hamilton F. Allen, of Washington and Jefferson College, and Mr. Ell S. Day, of the McKeesport High School.

An evening meeting, in conjunction with The Archaeological Institute of Pittsburgh, will be held March 25, when Professor Egbert of Columbia University will deliver an illustrated lecture, The Story of Latin Inscriptions. A fifth meeting, with an especially attractive program, will be held Saturday, March 29, in conjunction with the Education Association of Western Pennsylvania.

PEABODY HIGH SCHOOL, Pittsburgh.

N. E. HENRY, Secretary.

JUVENAL 8. 150-154 AGAIN

I have just been reading the note in The Classical Weekly 12. 121–123 on Juvenal 8. 150–154. I thought at once of Homer's $\kappa\rho\hat{\imath}$; the fact that this form is an abbreviation suggests that it was a familiar term for the food of horses, and that this food itself was in very common use. Il. 8.564, and Od. 4.440–441 show clearly that the barley was used as a "toning-meal", to use Miss Smiley's term.

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Some further allusions to barley may be of interest, especially since they come from Plautus: As. 706 (Libanus servus, who has converted his master into a 'horse', says) demam hercle iam de hordeo, tolutim ni badizas, 'I'll dock your barley directly, if you don't stir yourself and gallop' (Nixon); Cas. 493-494 (Lysimachus senex is giving orders to Chalinus servos for a feast) emito sepiolas, lepadas, lolligunculas, hordeias— CH. Immo triticeias, si sapis, 'Buy some little sepias, and limpets, and little cuttles, and grainings of barley. CH. Well, but make 'em grainings of wheat, if you're wise' (Nixon).

References to triticum are found in Plautus, in Cur. 586, Mil. Glor. 321, Poen. 326, Ru. 146, Truc. 33, 523

CLASSICAL ARTICLES IN NON-CLASSICAL PERIODICALS

V

- Church Quarterly Review—Jan., A. H. Cruickshank, The Future of Greek (F. W. Pember); (C. H. Herford, The Poetry of Lucre-tius); (W. Rhys Roberts, Patriotic Greek Poetry).
- Dublin Review-Jan.-Mar., Father T. Dempsey, The Delphic Oracle (H. P. E.).
- Educational Review—Feb., Post-Bellum Latin, F. G. Moore; The Humanities after the War, A. F. West.
 English Historical Review—Oct., Centuriation in Middlesex, M. Sharpe; (F. Picavet, Hypostases Plotiennes et Trinité Chrétienne).
- History (London)—Jan., P. Gardner, A History of Ancient Coinage (G. F. Hill).
- Nineteenth Century-Jan., Last Words on Sophocles, W. S. Lilly. Open Court—Feb., (The Complete Works of Plotinus. Translated by K. S. Guthrie, Together with the Lives of Plotinus, Com-mentary by Porphyry and Illustrations by Iamblichus and Ammonius).
- Outlook—Peb. 19, What Latin is Good For, A. W. Burr.—Feb. 26, Boys and Latin, A. W. Shepherd.
- Poetry-Feb., Orpheus in the Street [a poem], B. K. van Slyke.
- Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France—July-Sept., La prosodie latine inédite, composée pour le grand Dauphin, par Bossuet et Huet, T. Savtchenko.
- Rivista Storica—July-Sept., Vito Sgarra, La città di Netium sulla via romana Brindisi-Benevento e Castel del Monte (S. Panareo); P. Geroso, Sant' Agostino e la decadenza dell' Impero Romano (P. Lugano).
- Saturday Review-Feb. 1, Mysticism = (W. R. Inge, The Philoso-
- phy of Plotinus).

 South Atlantic Quarterly—Jan., G. Murray, Religio Grammatici, the Religion of a Man of Letters (C. W. Peppler).

 Spectator—Jan. 18 (T. Whittaker, The Neo-Platonists).—Feb. I. Neo-Platonism To-Day = (W. R. Inge, The Philosophy of Plotinus: Plotinus, The Ethical Treatises Translated by C. Mackenna).

 W. S. M.

- erica—Nov. 23, The Minimum Essentials, Austin G. Schmidt [sets forth the minimum essentials in the teaching of Latin].—Jan. 25, The Vitalizer of the World, Francis P. Donnelly, S. J. [an interesting account of the part Greek has played in vitalizing the thought of the world].
- American Historical Review—Jan., Georgia Williams Leffingwell, Social and Private Life at Rome in the Time of Plautus and Terence (W. A. Oldfather).
- The Geographical Review—Feb., 1917 [=3.107-118], The Development of Appreciation of Mountain Scenery in Modern Times, Walter Woodburn Hyde.
- Harvard Graduates' Magazine Dec., In Behalf of the Classics, Fred B. Lund.
- The High School Journal—Jan., The Teaching of Latin in the High School. VIII. The Subject-matter in High School Latin, G. A. Harrer.
- Howard University Record—Jan., The Classics and the College Course, George M. Lightfoot.
- Journal of Education—February 20, The Study of Language in our Public Schools, Joel N. Eno [hostile to Latin].

- The Nation—Jan. 4, The Modern World and the Latin Question, Richard Mott Gummere.—Jan. 25, Language, Literature, or History leditorial: a challenge to teachers of the Classics to define clearly their aims].—Feb. 22, Standardization Gone Mad, D. P. Lockwood [a vigorous reply to the editorial of Inneres
- Quarterly Review-Oct., Cicero and the Conquest of Gaul, J. Wells.
- School Review—Jan., A Brief Review of the Current Literature Relative to History and the Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools, R. M. Tryon.—Feb. 19, Recent Publications in the field of Secondary Latin, W. L. Carr inotices, unfortunately too brief to be of much value, of many things, grouped as A. Books of General Interest; B. Text Books; Bulletins, Pamphlets, Reports, etc.].
- School and Society—Jan. 11, What is Transfer of Training? C. H. Bode.—Jan. 25, Two Inaugural Addresses, Charles Knapp Ian examination of remarks about the Classics made in their Inaugural Addresses, by President William Allen Neilson, of Smith College, and by President William Allen Neilson, of Smith College, and by President Kenneth C. M. Sills. of Bowdoin College]; Greek and Latin as Requirements for the A.B. Degree in American Colleges and Universities, Gregory D. Walcott.—Feb. 8, The Proposed Revision of Secondary-School Subjects looking to more Effective Education in Personal Culture and Good Citizenship, David Snedden.—Feb. 15, Tests of Intelligence; Reliability, Significance, Susceptibility to Special Training and Adaptation to the General Nature of the Class, Edward L. Thorndike.
- University of Pennsylvania Law Review and American Law Register—June, 1918, The Homicide Courts of Ancient Athens, Walter Woodburn Hyde; The Basilica—A Ninth Century Roman Law Code which Became the Pirst Civil Code of Modern Greece a Thousand Years Later, Charles P. Sherman; R. W. Husband, The Prosecution of Jesus, Its Date, History and Legality (B. W. Amram).

PLUTO AND THE TRIDENT

In reference to the point raised by Professor Dunn in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 12.125 concerning the possible classical origin of the pitch-fork as an attribute of Pluto or his attendant spirits we may call attention to Seneca, Hercules Furens 563, where the God of Death in a former contest with Hercules is described as telum tergemina cuspide praeferens. The word cuspis is applied to Neptune's trident in Claudianus, De Raptu Proserpinae 2.181.

When Professor Dunn ascribes the development of the pitch-fork idea wholly to "works of art", I do not know whether he means ancient or modern works. The attendant spirits of the Lord of the Dead seem to have carried implements of that and similar nature, according to Etruscan art, if one may judge from the illustration in Daremberg and Saglio, s. v. Inferi, 4054.

What I have said is not new, but it is in the spirit of research.

SMITH COLLEGE.

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There came to hand lately a copy of the Second Annual Report of the Auxiliary Fund Association, a body established for the support of The American School of Classical Studies at Athens. The object of the organization is to unite all the friends of the School, and to win new friends for it, for the purpose of increasing the resources of the School in practical co-operation with the Managing Committee of the School. Contributions toward the realization of this object, large or small, will be welcomed by the Treasurer of the Association, Professor William Nickerson Bates, of the University of Pennsylvania.

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